

L
T25
LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

SEP 24 1942

The Teachers College

JOURNAL

The Contents of The Journal Are Indexed in The Education Index



VOLUME XIV

SEPTEMBER, 1942

NUMBER 1

Indiana State Teachers College
Terre Haute, Indiana

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Volume XIV

SEPTEMBER, 1942

Number 1

CONTENTS

An Experiment in Teaching Vocabulary J. R. Shannon and Marian A. Kittle	Page 1
Why First Graders Fail Edith VanWinkle	Page 7
The New Dimension Clarence M. Morgan	Page 9
The President, a Kiss, and the Holy Bible Clement T. Malan	Page 11
Youth and Community Action Helen Ederle	Page 18
Around the Reading Table	Page 20

THE SEPTEMBER COVER

It has been the custom of THE JOURNAL in recent years to feature in the September issue the leading contribution of the Division of Research of Indiana State Teachers College produced during the year before. The feature article this time is the vocabulary study starting on page one. A group of high-school student studying in the library, with one of them starting to use a dictionary and another waiting to use it, forms a suitable illustration for this article. The students in the picture, from left to right, are Anna Alsman, Hubert Evinger, Maryanna Dede, and James Giglio. All four were among the Laboratory School students used in the vocabulary experiment.

RALPH N. TIREY, PRESIDENT

J. R. SHANNON, EDITOR

EDITORIAL BOARD

FLORISE HUNSUCKER

JOHN F. SEMBOWER

VICTOR C. MILLER

J. E. GRINNELL

J. C. TRANBARGER

Published bi-monthly by the Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Entered as second-class matter October 5, 1931, at the post office at Terre Haute, Indiana, under the act of August 24, 1912.



An Experiment In Teaching Vocabulary

J. R. Shannon and Marian A. Kittle

The writers are Director and Assistant Director of Research at Indiana State Teachers College. Their experiment in the teaching of vocabulary was conducted in the Laboratory School of the College, where several teachers co-operated. Those members of the staff to whom the writers are most particularly indebted for co-operation are Assistant Principal and Principal Orvel E. Strong and Olis G. Jamison. Others who assisted were Minnie W. Bogardus, Meribah Clark, Eleanor S. Dunlap, Gertrude Ewing, Margaret Gillum, Frances H. Henry, Florise Hunsucker, Mildred T. Jansen, Caroline S. Kelso, Kathryn M. Kennedy, Flora H. Smith, Herman Truelove, and Gypsy Wilson.

Who can name a teacher who has not said, when asked the meaning of a word by a pupil, "Look it up in the dictionary; you will remember it better if you look it up yourself"? And who can name a pupil under these circumstances who was not somewhat annoyed by the teacher's answer and perhaps skeptical as to whether the teacher really knew? Was the teacher right in refusing to answer? Do pupils remember better the meanings of the words they look up in the dictionary than the ones their teachers tell them? Can vocabulary be taught effectively by intensive word study anyway? With the hope of answering some of these questions, an experiment with seven methods for teaching vocabulary was conducted in the Laboratory School of Indiana State Teachers College during the school year of 1941-1942.

The Plan of the Experiment

Grossly stated, the procedure in the experiment consisted of adminis-

tering a standardized vocabulary test to the pupils of the eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades; forming seven equal groups on the basis of the preliminary test; teaching the words of a duplicate form of the test by a different method in each of the seven groups; administering the duplicate test immediately after the seven groups received their instruction; administering the same duplicate test again after three months; and treating the results statistically.

After examining all the standardized vocabulary tests on the market, with the particular criterion of their fitness for the experiment, the senior investigator chose the Clinton General Vocabulary Tests for High Schools and Colleges, Forms A and B, by R. J. Clinton of Oregon State College. The reliability of the tests, as reported by their author and determined by the use of the Spearman-Brown Formula, is .94. Form A was used for the preliminary testing, and Form B was used in the experiment. In advance of the whole project, the senior investigator wrote a 1,500-word narrative which used all of the 150 words of Form B Test once each but employed as simple a vocabulary otherwise as possible. The narrative was used in five of the experimental groups so as to present the test words in context, while the other two groups studied the 150 words from mimeographed alphabetical lists without context.

Form A Test was given at the end of September to 336 pupils. Then with test scores as the principal criterion of grouping, but with sex and grade level of pupils as minor criteria, the seven groups were formed, by a

matching process, with 48 pupils in each. The average scores of the seven groups ranged from 55.94 to 56.12, which means practical identity of vocabulary ability, and the sex and grade-level distributions were not much less nearly identical.

Before all the data of the experiment were gathered, however, some irregularities developed which altered the grouping finally used in the statistical treatment. Nineteen of the original 336 pupils withdrew from school before all data were gathered; one sat idly throughout the period for word study; some others did not follow instructions in taking Form B Test; still others were absent one time or the other when the B Test was given. All of these cases were dropped from the experiment. Furthermore, seven pupils with extremely high scores (above 100) on Form A Test, and 14 with extremely low ones (below 58), were dropped because their cases skewed their respective distributions to such degree that equality in grouping was unattainable if they were retained. In fact, the original number of pupils per group was made high purposely, in anticipation of future absences and withdrawals, with the hope that no group used in the final statistical calculations would fall below 35. After all alterations of the original grouping were made, the groups used in the later statistical treatment of this report were fairly comparable, all being skewed somewhat toward the low extreme. The number of pupils in each group and the mean score of each group on Form A Test are shown in Table I.

TABLE I
GROUPS USED IN FINAL STATISTICAL TREATMENT

Groups	Number of Pupils	Mean Scores on Form A Test
I. D	34	58.24
I. T	45	58.33
C D	36	58.47
C T	38	58.16
C U D	40	58.40
C U T	38	58.03
C U G	41	58.56

The code letters used in naming the seven groups help explain the nature of the teaching procedures em-

ployed. Their meanings are as follows:

"L means that the pupils met the experimental words in mimeographed alphabetical LISTS.

C means that the pupils met the words of Form B first in CONTEXT.

U means that the pupils first met the words in the same narrative in which the C groups met them, but the 150 words were UNDERLINED in their mimeographed copies of the narrative.

D means that the pupils used DICTIONARIES to learn the meaning of words.

T means that the pupils learned the meanings through their teachers' TELLING them.

G means that the pupils learned the meanings from mimeographed GLOSSARIES.

Group L D used dictionaries to find the meanings of the 150 test words, which were presented to them in mimeographed alphabetical lists. The pupils wrote the meanings of the words on their mimeographed lists as they found them in their dictionaries, although there were no instructions to that effect given them. The two teachers in charge of the group answered no questions except those pertaining to instructions for procedure.

Group L T followed the same word lists as Group L D, but a teacher told the meanings. The teacher instructed all pupils at once, taking the words in order as they appeared on the list. She first pronounced a word; then she gave orally the meaning of the word which was used in connection with it in Form B Test, and any other discussion of the meaning necessary for clarity; then she used the word in a sentence; occasionally she had pupils use a word in sentences of their own making. The teacher did not give meanings of a word other than the one necessary to pass the test.

Group C D were given copies of the mimeographed narrative and told to study it carefully so as to pass a test on the story. They were advised to read the story clear through once,

even though they did not understand it all, before using their dictionaries. Then, after having a general idea of the story as a whole, they were to use their dictionaries, making sure of the meaning of each word. As in Group L D, the two teachers in charge answered no questions which might reveal the meaning of a word.

Group C T had the same mimeographed narrative, and the same instructions about studying it, as Group C D, but when a pupil in Group C T met a new word, he raised his hand and one of the two teachers in charge came to him and told him in low tones the meaning of the word. The teacher may have used other remarks than words of the Test to make the one meaning of a word clear, but she did not befuddle a pupil with too many meanings. Dictionaries were not allowed.

Group C U D proceeded in the same manner as Group C D, except that special attention was directed to the 150 test words by underlinings in the mimeographed copies of their narratives.

Group C U T proceeded in the same manner as Group C D, except for the difference pointed out in the paragraph above.

Group C U G received the same mimeographed narratives, with 150 underlined words, and the same instructions for studying and preparing for the short test. However, when a pupil in Group C U G met a new underlined word, he looked for its meaning on a mimeographed glossary which was handed him with his copy of the narrative. One hundred of the 150 words in the mimeographed alphabetical list in the glossary had after them meanings expressed only in the language found in the Test. In the opinion of the experimenters, however, the "test meanings" of the remaining 50 words were not sufficient, so supplementations were included in the glossary. In each case, however, only one meaning for a word was presented.

A Group L G, which would have used the same glossaries as Group C U G, was not organized, because it was feared the monotony of the procedure for such a group would be

overbearing. The enmity experienced by Group C U G during the instruction period bore out the experimenters' suspicions and justified the omission of a Group L G.

The same time schedule was followed by all groups on that October day when instruction in the 150 words was given them. Except for a five-minute intermission at 10:25, all groups spent from 8 a. m. till 11:25 in studying the words and the narrative. The period from 11:30 to 12:10 was devoted to administering Form B Test. The five context groups took a ten-item multiple-choice test on the narrative after completing the vocabulary test. The time allotment for study proved entirely too long for Group C U G. All pupils in that group were done within an hour. Then, upon insistence of their teacher, they went over the material again and again. Even then, the last hour before the testing period was a monotonous one. The pupils were sleepy and bored-looking. The head teacher in charge of the group described it in these words: "Beginning the 10:30 hour most pupils were to the breaking point—they didn't make much effort to go over the material again. They squirmed; some slept; and some made signs with their hands and eyes. Very little was accomplished this hour."

Some of the L D pupils and C D pupils, like the C U G ones, got done early, but not so much early, and showed little interest toward the end of the period for study. The time for study was kept the same for all seven groups, but not all found it necessary to work with equal diligence throughout. The teachers in charge of Groups C T and C U T reported that they were kept busy throughout the period of study but that they were able to keep up with their pupils' requests for assistance.

Whereas the period for study proved long enough for most or all pupils in all groups, some pupils were unable to finish. All pupils in Groups L T, C T, and C U G had time to finish the study of all words. Three in Group L D, two in Group C D, and four in Group C U T lacked a few words each of finishing. In Group C U D 12 pupils found the

time too short, but not much too short. The probable explanation for more pupils failing to finish in Group C U D than in any other is that their test words were underlined, they were told to study particularly the underlined words, and they had to use the slow device of dictionaries.

The mimeographed instructions to pupils in Groups L D contained the instruction to place a heavy black line under the last word studied in the alphabetical list, if not finished within the allotted time, thereby indicating the point reached. Similar instructions to all groups using the narrative specified marking the last word covered in the careful study of the narrative. All word lists and narratives being collected at the end of the study period, it was easy to determine exactly which words any individual pupil failed to reach.

In an effort to measure quality as well as quantity of vocabulary learning during the period of study, revised scores on the first administering of Form B Test were computed for the 12 pupils of Group C U D who did not finish. The revised score for a pupil was computed by determining the percentage of words he got right of words studied, and multiplying that percentage by 150. The 12 revised scores were then compared with their respective actual scores. Two of the revised scores were less by one point each than their respective actual scores, one was less by two points, one less by three, and one less by four; four were greater by one point each than their respective actual scores, one was greater by three points, and one was greater by four; one was the same. The sums of the positive and negative differences, therefore, were the same, and the average for the group remained the same. Since the process of computing revised scores for Group C U D, in which their number was greatest, made no statistical difference, further attention to revised scores in this report is neglected.

Immediate Results of Learning

Although the five groups using the narrative were told there would be a short test on it, no group was told there would be a vocabulary test. In

fact, the test on the narrative was intended partly as a blind to conceal the real objective. Since the test was administered, however, it will not be amiss to report the results grossly, which is done in Table II. There should not necessarily be much correlation between the scores on the narrative test and those on the vocabulary test. A knowledge of not all the vocabulary-test words was necessary in order to understand the narrative, although the narrative test itself employed several of the words in the vocabulary test, and the context of the narrative may have suggested the meaning of some of the words not already known.

TABLE II
GROSS RESULTS OF THE
NARRATIVE TEST

Groups	Mean Scores
C D	6.69
C T	7.32
C U D	7.53
C U T	6.79
C U G	7.05

The results of the vocabulary test given immediately following the period for word study are the measures of learning of great significance. They are shown in Table III.

Table III lists, first of all, the mean scores for the seven groups on the first administration of Form B Test. Beneath each mean is its probable

error. Then, by a cross-reference device, the difference between each mean and each other mean is indicated. Beneath each such difference is a figure showing the statistical significance of the difference. An analysis of the table, in light of the foregoing description of the nature of the experiment, warrants the following conclusions concerning immediate learnings.

1. Group C U G was distinctly and significantly superior to all other groups except L T, in which case it was only slightly superior. This all-round superiority most probably was due to the economy of time which the glossary provided, even though many of the pupils wasted much of the time thus economized. Each pupil could work at his own rate, and did not have to lose time conferring with a teacher or turning the pages of a dictionary. The glossary method of teaching vocabulary is impracticable, however, except for textbook-like materials, most of which will be found only in school rooms.

2. Group L T was distinctly and significantly superior to all others except C U G. This superiority probably was due largely to the economy of not having to lose time with a dictionary or with studying words in context. It probably was due in large measure also to the teacher's

TABLE III
STATISTICAL DATA FROM FIRST ADMINISTRATION
OF VOCABULARY TEST, FORM B

Groups	Means and Probable Errors of Means	Differences Between Means, in Favor of Groups Listed at Left, and Number of Chances in 100 That the Differences Between True Means Are Greater than Zero					
		L T	C D	C T	C U D	C U T	C U G
L D	71.59 2.63	-19.54 100	3.51 73	-7.07 89	-5.16 84	-1.99 63	-24.36 100
L T	90.93 2.46		22.85 100	12.27 99	14.18 100	17.40 100	-5.02 80
C D	68.08 2.78			-10.58 97	-8.67 95	-5.45 83	-27.87 100
C T	78.66 2.75				1.91 64	5.13 82	-17.29 100
C U D	76.75 2.20					3.22 74	-19.20 100
C U T	73.53 2.69						-22.42 100
C U G	95.95 3.13						

greater ability (inherent in the method) to obtain keen and continued attention throughout the period for study. The teacher's using each word in a sentence probably was a facilitating factor also.

3. Group C D was lower than all others, and in most cases distinctly and significantly so. Group L D was lower than all others except C D, but in most cases not distinctly and significantly so. Both Groups L D and C D were distinctly and significantly lower than their comparable Groups L T and C T, respectively. Therefore, although Group C U D was slightly superior to Group C U T, the dictionary method proved less effective, on the whole, than the "telling" method.

The very mature of the experiment, in a way, might be alleged to have loaded the dice against the dictionary method. Some words may not have been in the pupils' dictionaries; other words may have had such a variety of meanings in the dictionaries that the pupils were confused, not knowing which to use; still others may have been defined in the dictionaries with language so different from that used in Form B Test that the dictionary users suffered a disadvantage. Whatever validity there may be to the allegation, its implications apply with almost equal force to the use of dictionaries in any situation. In order to check the validity of the allegation, a finer analysis of the data was made.

All pupils in all dictionary groups used *The Winston Simplified Dictionary for Schools* (The John C. Winston Company, 1939). Four of the test words (darkhued, codicil, germane, sequestrate) were not in the Winstons, so unabridged Websters were consulted for them. Some of the 150 words had a variety of meanings; 15 of the best examples of this (alien, annex, compact, conjugation, current, equity, essence, expedient, normal, prone, retort, sole, squall, succeed, venom) were given particular attention in analyzing the data of the experiment. Sixty-five of the 150 words, although shown with the appropriate meanings in the Winstons, were not defined in the identical

language found in Form B Test. Since nine of the 65 were among the 15 mentioned above, only 56 were given particular attention in this connection in analyzing the data. A dozen of the 56 (contemptible, decease, deleterious, indignation, miniature, mirage, nicely, odious, pretext, sedate, ulterior, wool) were defined in the Test in language which was as rare, or more so, as the words themselves. The four plus the 15 plus the 56 words equal 75, or exactly half the words in the Test. The results of the analysis of the data to test the validity of the theory that the experiment might be unfair to the dictionary groups, are shown in Table IV and Figure 1.

That there was not much validity to the theory, is shown first by the fact that Group L D, studying words without context, did better on the 15 words with various meanings than did Group C D. Furthermore, the percentage of the 15 words which pupils got right was higher in every

group except one (C U T) than of any other set of words or of the whole 150. The 15 words with various meanings, therefore, did not have a deleterious influence.

Two of the dictionary groups, L D and C U D, found more difficulty with the four words not in the Winstons than with the Test as a whole, but the other dictionary group, C D, did not. Furthermore, most of the non-dictionary groups also had trouble with the four words, although not so much as did Groups L D and C U D. On the whole, therefore, especially in light of the fact that there were only four out of 150 words in this category, it is safe to say that the dictionary groups were not significantly handicapped by the absence of the four words from their Winstons.

All groups except one, L D, suffered about alike with the 56 words defined in the Test in language not found in the Winstons. Even though the non-dictionary groups were in-

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGES OF CERTAIN WORDS OF FORM B WHICH PUPILS GOT RIGHT ON FIRST TESTING

Groups	Four Words Not In Dictionary	Fifteen Words With Different Meanings	Fifty-six Words Not Defined in Dictionary In Same Language as In Test	All Words
LD	36.03	48.04	23.25	47.73
LT	58.14	70.39	53.36	60.62
CD	45.83	47.59	58.19	45.39
CT	51.32	54.56	45.68	52.44
CUD	37.50	55.33	42.41	51.17
CUT	50.66	48.42	43.42	49.02
CUG	62.80	64.88	57.49	63.97

Per Cent

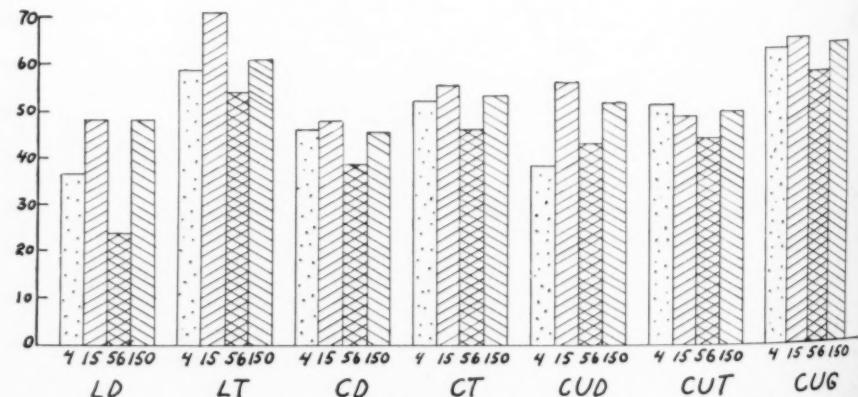


Figure 1.—Percentages of certain words of Form B which pupils got right on first testing

structed with the identical language of the Test, it failed to result in their doing any better on the 56 in proportion to their scores on the Test as a whole than two of the dictionary groups. All groups except C U D made their poorest showing on the 56 words. This factor also, therefore, can be discounted as a vitiating element in the experiment.

Except as already commented upon, the relative height of the bars in Figure 1 for each group of pupils is quite similar to that for each other group. This fact, plus the details of the analysis already considered, throws the responsibility for whatever differences in total Test scores there are among the seven groups upon the nature of the teaching-and-learning procedures followed in the seven groups, and not upon unfairness in the nature of the experiment.

4. Group C U D was distinctly and significantly superior to Group C D, but Group C U T was inferior to Group C T in almost equal degree. Therefore, no conclusions can be drawn concerning the advisability of underlining words toward which pupils' attention should be directed.

5. Group L D was superior to Group C D but inferior to Group C U D, although in neither case was the difference great or fully significant statistically; Group L T was greatly and significantly superior to both comparable groups C T and C U T. Therefore, there was no advantage for the context groups.

Failure of the context groups to show superiority over comparable non-context groups may be surprising to some. The explanation of the failure probably lies chiefly in the fact that the vocabulary study by all groups was a cramming process, and in such case those who did not have to take out time to study the context had more time to cram on vocabulary. Meeting words in context only once each, and a large number of new words in the one bit of context, should not even be expected, perhaps, to prove any more effective. It may be, also, that the prospect of a test on the context had some influence in retarding vocabulary mastery.

Net Results of Learning

Full precautions were taken at the time of the experiment to prevent any pupil's giving additional study or review to the 150 words. The teachers collected all word lists and all copies of the narrative. Also, the teachers watched to see that no pupil copied the words from his mimeographed list or narrative and thereby had a chance to give them further study. The teachers said nothing about the experiment after the tests were administered the first time, and there was no reason why any pupil should not think the first administration of Form B Test was the end.

Additional factors also helped cause the pupils to dismiss the matter from their attention. The day chosen for the study of the 150 words was Wednesday, October 22. The pupils were dismissed for the rest of the day immediately after they finished the tests, there being a football game in the afternoon. Then on Thursday and Friday school was closed for State Teachers' Association. It seems, therefore, when the test was administered again on January 8, eleven weeks later, the pupils were caught completely by surprise.

The results of the second administration of Form B Test are shown in

Table V, which is identical in form to Table III. The conclusions concerning the net learning after a period of several weeks' forgetting, as an analysis of Table V will confirm, are the following:

1. No differences between means of groups on the second testing were great, and none had full statistical significance.

2. Group L T was superior to all others.

3. Group C U G was superior to all others except Group L T.

4. Group C U D was inferior to all others, Group C D was next lowest, and Group L D was next. In other words, the three dictionary groups were lowest.

5. Group C D did better than Group C U D, but Group C U T did better than C T. Again, therefore, for purposes of vocabulary development, no conclusion can be stated for the advisability or inadvisability of directing attention to words by underlining.

6. As in the first testing, no advantage, from the point of view of vocabulary development, accrued from meeting the words in context. Group L D did better than either C D or C U D, and Group L T did better than either C T or C U T.

TABLE V
STATISTICAL DATA FROM SECOND ADMINISTRATION
OF VOCABULARY TEST, FORM B

Groups	Means and Probable Errors of Means	Differences Between Means, in Favor of Groups Listed at Left, and Number of Chances in 100 That the Differences Between True Means Are Greater than Zero					
		L T	C D	C T	C U D	C U T	C U G
L D	64.52 2.56	-4.75 84	1.07 59	-0.57 55	1.84 66	-1.05 59	-1.99 66
L T	69.07 2.15		5.82 91	4.18 85	6.59 95	5.70 81	2.76 72
C D	65.25 2.07			-1.64 64	0.77 58	-2.12 69	-3.06 74
C T	64.89 2.04				2.41 73	-0.48 54	-1.42 62
C U D	62.48 1.77					2.89 77	-3.83 80
C U T	65.57 1.95						-0.94 58
C U G	66.31 2.50						

A Comparison of First and Second Test Results

When the results of the first and second testings are compared, some significant conclusions become apparent which might escape notice otherwise. The introduction of Table VI helps make the comparison easier.

1. All groups declined from the first testing to the second, the amount of decline being great by most groups, and the statistical significance of the degree of decline being considerable or complete. In fact, the mean scores for some groups on the second administration of Form B Test were only a few points higher than on Form A Test.

2. In general, the groups which scored highest on the first administration of Form B Test fell farthest on the second, and those which scored lowest on the first fell least on the second. The coefficient of correlation between the rank order of means on the first administration of the Test and the rank order of percentages of decline on the second is .98.

The practical significance of the two foregoing conclusions is that the cramming of vocabulary is not particularly valuable. An extensive vocabulary results from intellectual maturing and experiencing, not from

cramming. It comes from repeated use of words in meaningful situations, not from a single use in formalized classrooms.

General Conclusions

This experiment was so well organized and controlled that whatever differences were revealed by the statistical measures employed can be charged to the relative effectiveness of the teaching- and- learning devices experimented with and not to imperfections of experimental technique. The conclusions arrived at through teaching vocabulary probably will be found to be applicable also to the teaching of other fixed associations. One should not assume for an instant, however, that they would be applicable to the teaching of problem solving or similar so-called higher mental processes. The general conclusions which the procedure and data of this experiment warrant are the following:

1. Vocabulary can not be taught effectively by cramming. Although considerable immediate vocabulary learnings may result from cramming, they are not permanent.

2. Pupils who are told the meanings of words by their teachers, or by means of glossaries, learn more than those who look the words up in dictionaries. The superiority of

TABLE VI
A COMPARISON OF MEANS FROM FIRST ADMINISTRATION
AND SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF VOCABULARY TEST,
FORM B

Groups	Superiority of Means From First Administration Over Means From Second, and Number of Chances in 100 That the Differences Between True Means are Greater Than Zero	Percentage of Decline From First to Second Testing
LD	7.27 91	10.16
LT	21.86 100	24.04
CD	4.83 83	7.09
CT	15.77 100	17.51
CUD	14.27 100	18.59
CUT	8.16 95	11.10
CUG	20.64 100	50.89

their immediate learnings over those of the dictionary users are likely to be considerable, and, although they forget a larger percentage of the words thus learned through cramming, they end up with a noticeable superiority over the dictionary users. This experiment did not attempt to measure the growth of inclination toward or independence and skill in using dictionaries. Such learnings grow from extended experience and probably would not be affected noticeably by one forenoon's activity.

5. When the purpose of a learning exercise is vocabulary development, the placing of a large number of words in continuous context has no advantage, and it is no more helpful to underline the words in context than to leave them for the pupils to seek the meanings of without such motivation.

ILLUSTRIOS ALUMNI

Charles Edward Rochelle

Among the students receiving the degree of Doctor in Education at the University of California during the past summer was Charles Edward Rochelle, his final examination having been held August 6.

Dr. Rochelle graduated from Wiley High School in 1914, received the Bachelor of Arts degree at Indiana State in 1917 and the Master of Arts degree here in 1935. Coming out of Indiana State in the class of 1917, the one which claims a larger number of notables in education than any other, Eddie taught his first year in Rockville. For the past dozen years he has served as head of the department of social sciences at Lincoln High School of Evansville.

During commencement week, 1942, Eddie returned to his Alma Mater to participate in the reunion of the class of 1917, which had been graduated for twenty-five years.

Why first Graders fail

Edith VanWinkle

Mrs. Van Winkle is a primary teacher in the Thornton School of Vigo County. Her study of the reading difficulties of a group of sixteen children is an example of what any capable teacher can do if she assumes a scientific attitude toward her job. Mrs. Van Winkle concludes with some challenges to school administrators.



EDITH VAN WINKLE

When the writer checked the membership of her newly assigned room in September, 1941, she found thirty-two children, eight of whom had spent two full years in the first grade and were then in the second, and ten of whom were still classified as first graders after a full year in that grade. This retardation was due entirely to the inability of the children to master first-grade reading requirements, and reading was the main requirement for passing to the second grade. Some attempt to find out the cause of their reading disability was the teacher's first challenge.

The first theory which presented itself to the teacher was that children were being pushed into school at too

early an age, so young, in fact, that they did not reach the age of reading readiness until several months afterwards. When the Indiana General Assembly set the age of compulsory school attendance at seven years, they probably did so on the advice of educators who had learned from experience that normal children did not have the mental maturity to enable them to comprehend the abstract process of substituting symbols for sounds before that age. In more recent years scientific experimentation has determined that the appropriate mental age for that accomplishment is 6-6 to 7-0.¹

With this hunch uppermost in the teacher's mind, data to verify it or to dispute it were needed. Primary data were obtained by finding out the chronological and mental age at which each failing child entered school, and by administering standardized tests through the school year and watching for progress and noting the age level at which the progress took place. Supplementary data were obtained on each child's personal history as to health, cultural environment at home, and social adaptations at school.

Mental age at time of entering school was estimated after learning the exact chronological age at the time of entering, the chronological age at the time of the investigation, and the mental age (by the Stanford-

¹Emmett Albert Beits, *The Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties*, (Rowe, Peterson & Co., 1936).

G. D. Schultz, editor of the Child Welfare department of *Better Homes and Gardens*, a lay magazine, put the point squarely: "We now know that a mental age of seven is the minimum for good results in learning to read. A six year old needs an I. Q. of at least 110 to succeed in the first grade, and a child of less than six should have an I. Q. of 120 or over." (November 1941, p. 66.)

Binet test) at the time of the investigation. Progress during the school year was measured by three administerings of the Pressey Diagnostic Vocabulary Test.

The pertinent statistical data are shown in Table I. Only sixteen cases are included because one first grader and one second grader of the original group of reading delinquents withdrew from school before all data could be obtained.

Other data, chiefly concerning health and social characteristics, are presented in the following outline. The study revealed that in addition to the immature age at which most of the problem children entered school, most of them also labored under one or more other handicaps.

Case 1. This child was handicapped in both vision and hearing, being extremely nearsighted and a borderline case in hearing. He did not seem to be able to associate speech sounds with letter groups. His reading was done mostly by memory and suggestion from content. He had a large oral vocabulary. While the child's home environment was good in some respects, the mother was much, much younger than the father.

Case 2. A malformed palate, rendering him unable to make many speech sounds was the child's chief handicap. Persons outside his family found it next to impossible to understand his speech.

Case 3. A brother of Case 2, this child had the same general trouble. His higher intelligence enabled him to understand his own problem, and he worked harder to overcome his handicap.

Case 4. Outside bad tonsils and decayed teeth, this child seemed normal physically. However, she had a bad speech defect resulting in inability to make many speech sounds, but responded well to drill in articulation. After being in school a year and a half she was able to make a score on the Pressey test of only 5. Shortly after that, she seemed to reach the degree of mental maturity for reading readiness. Another possible explanation of her improvement is that the emotional and mental confusion caused by a year of pressure "to learn

TABLE I
STATISTICAL DATA ON SIXTEEN CHILDREN

Cases	Grades	I.Q.	Chronological Age at Time of Entrance	Probable Mental Age at Time of Entrance	Recorded Semester Grades in Reading						Vocabulary Measure*	Growth Word Equivalent in May	
					1	2	3	4	5	6			
1	2	110	6-2	7-0	D	F	-	C	F	D	5	19	29
2	2	95	5-11	5-6	F	F	F	F	F	D	2	19	24
3	1	112	5-11	6-10	F	F	D	C			6	20	50
4	1	88	6-5	5-5	-	F	F	D			3	3	24
5	2	108	5-10	6-6	F	C	-	B	C	B	20	46	64
6	2	106	5-11	6-7	F	C	-	C	C	C	19	56	50
7	1	97	6-8	6-5	F	C	C	B			4	9	45
8	1	95	6-8	6-1	F	F	D	C			1	5	51
9	2	79	7-0	5-0	F	F	C	C	C	C	26	44	59
10	1	92	6-2	5-6	F	F	-	F			7	14	30
11	1	91	6-1	5-4	F	F	-	F			9	18	24
12	2	99	6-3	6-2	F	D	-	C	C	C	14	20	54
13	1	77	5-8	4-0	F	F	F	F			0	0	0
14	2	98	6-0	5-10	F	F	D	D	D	C	6	7	54
15	1	122	6-0	7-8	F	D	C	B			20	41	56
16	1	90	6-2	5-4	F	F	C	C			-	-	55

*Norms for the Pressey Vocabulary Test (for the beginning of grades indicated) are: 1A, 18; 2B, 55; 2A, 45.

"to read" was cleared away. Also, she was given much oral help in speech.

Case 5. Except for being woefully undersize, this boy was normal physically. But, since he entered school under six years of age, was not exceptionally bright, and lacked cultural refinement in his home, he was very unfit for the standard school curriculum, which expected him to read by the end of nine months. He sat in school and grinned like a tiny gnome. Much of his first year of "sitting" in the first grade was wasted.

Case 6. During her first year this girl was very shy and wept almost constantly. Since she was chronologically under six and came from a home where the worst of English was used, it is little wonder she did not learn to read readily. Even after three years of school she tried to read stories by substituting her own queer idioms for what was actually on the printed page.

Case 7. This child was practically deaf in one ear and had defective vision. He was given glasses by the Junior Red Cross and fed in the school cafeteria. His progress in the second semester of his second year in the first grade probably was due to his overcoming the handicap of meager language and social experience, and to correction of eye trouble. His hearing still is uncorrected.

Cases 8 and 9. These are brother

and sister and have no physical abnormality except malnutrition. Both started to school at mental ages below the level of reading readiness even if they had come from a home with good cultural surroundings, which they had not.

Case 10. Another eye and ear case. His eyes were not given attention until his second year in school, and his ears not until the third. Furthermore, he was too immature mentally.

Case 11. An even worse case of sight and hearing. He had "up-side-down" eyes, and nothing yet has been done about it. What he sees and hears probably would startle us all. He entered school from a hopelessly disorganized home at an age below the level of reading expectancy, and after two years of "being taught to read" still can't read in an easy first reader.

Case 12. A victim of "home troubles," and in addition had uncorrected eye strain. His ability to excel in writing and drawing kept him from becoming defeated in attitude. He just muddled along in reading.

Case 13. Although this child just accidentally got the unlucky number, he drew an unlucky number at conception. After two full years in school his mental age was only 5-8.

Case 14. Entering school at a mental age of 5-10, he became utterly muddled and formed the habit of

compensating by building up a complex that he could not hear. In reality his inability was not in hearing but in attending. Once the child was convinced that by close attention he could grasp the assignment and directions, he learned to read, but this did not occur until about the middle of the second semester of his third year in school.

Case 15. This child entered school totally undisciplined, and he wanted to do nothing but play. Although he was left to remain in the first grade at the end of his first year in school, during his second year his teacher was successful in securing the co-operation of the parents, changing the child's attitude, and getting him ready for the third grade.

Case 16. Here again we find a child entering school at a mental age too young to read during the first year. She was emotionally unbalanced and frequently had to be isolated from the class because of her noisy behavior. At the beginning of her second year in the first grade she had matured sufficiently and gave very little trouble.

From an analysis of the table and the other facts concerning the sixteen cases, the following conclusions are evident:

1. Twelve of the sixteen entered before they were mature enough to

(Continued on page 10)

The New Dimension

Clarence M. Morgan

Dr. Morgan is Director of Radio Education and Professor of Speech at Indiana State Teachers College.

"The American living room has a new dimension . . . —RADIO!"—this statement appeared at the beginning of an article published in the *Teachers College Journal* a few years ago. It is the purpose of the present article to report upon the eighth year of the activities of that "new dimension" as it has extended from the campus of Indiana State Teachers College through the medium of Radio Station WBOW.



CLARENCE M. MORGAN

Planning the program for a year's work in radio is not a haphazard undertaking. Radio programs do not "just grow." Many considerations enter into the picture.

The first consideration is the subject matter itself. Not all subjects taught in the public schools lend themselves to broadcasting. For example, it would be most difficult to teach typewriting by radio. Mathematics presents almost insurmountable obstacles. On the other hand, music, with its distinctive ear appeal, is definitely "radio material."

Second, there is the intangible thing called *radio personality*. Years of experience have proved that not all faculty members possess the ability

to project themselves and their ideas into the classroom, home, or office by means of radio. Such ability may be developed, but many are unwilling to make the sacrifices necessary for such development. Therefore, those faculty members who have a "natural" ability to project their ideas by means of radio are the ones who should be invited to participate in the broadcast programs.

The third consideration entering into the planning of the activities of the Radio Division is that the College exists primarily for the benefit of students and that students deserve the right to gain actual experience through microphone appearances. The year's program must, therefore, be planned to give students adequate radio participation.

For seven and one half years the broadcasts by the Radio Division of Indiana State Teachers College were planned to supplement the instruction given in the elementary and secondary schools of western Indiana and eastern Illinois. Broadcast materials were correlated with outlines presented in the State Course of Study. The time of broadcast was fixed at periods suitable to the classroom teacher. That type of program was used which would appeal most to the pupil toward whom the program was directed.

After December 7, 1941, a complete change was made in the type of broadcast originating from the campus studios. From the strictly educational program designed to supplement instruction in the schools, the program were re-designed to further civilian morale and understanding of war work. That this effort was successful is evidenced by a recognition from the War Department in Educational Bulletin No. 51, issued May 4, 1942, in which five series of programs broadcast by the Radio Division were listed as recommended

civilian morale-building programs. Army units, networks, and individual stations have written for information concerning the defense activities of the college Radio Division. The United States Office of Education has selected this Division as a unit to try for the first time on the air some of the scripts written for the Office of Education, to revise these scripts, and to submit to the Office of Education for use by groups throughout the entire United States the revised propaganda scripts.

The programs as presented during the eighth year were divided into three general classes: (1) Faculty Series (2) Classroom Broadcasts (3) Special Programs. The first classification included the following. One of our most interesting radio personalities, Dr. William P. Allyn, continued the fourth year of a series of talks making science facts available to the general public and the classroom. *The Guidance Series*, featuring Miss Helen Ederle, discussed opportunities in the war effort for all civilians. *Places in the News* introduced Mr. Alford Archer discussing the locality most discussed by the news of the past week. News of the activities of Indiana State Teachers College of primary interest to graduates and friends of the institution was presented regularly throughout the year by Mr. John Sembower. The Home Economics Department, co-operating with, and winning the recognition of, the War Department, developed two series planned to aid the housewife in her wartime purchasing. These series were: *Eating for "Oomph"* and *The Consumers Club of the Air*. In the Faculty Series, the program by Dr. Allyn, Miss Ederle, Mr. Archer, and the Home Economics Departments were given specific recognition in Bulletin No. 51 of the War Department mentioned earlier in this report. The broadcast of "We, the Pupils, Speak" was the fifth series to receive this honor.

The Classroom Series included those programs in which college students took major roles. Such productions were: *The Victory Series*, featuring students in propaganda morale-building scripts; *The Story*

Princess of the Music Box, in dramatized monologues of stories for children; *The Studio Orchestra*, with Professor Will H. Bryant as director, in a music appreciation series; *Talent On Parade*, offering opportunity for public recitals by radio for majors in the Music Department; *We, the Pupils, Speak*, a forum under the leadership of Dr. V. Dewey Annakin, giving high-school pupils opportunity to express uncensored opinions relative to current affairs; and the *Wabash Valley High School Series*, presenting broadcast by high-school pupils from schools located in the Wabash Valley.

Throughout the year many broadcast were presented which could not be definitely scheduled months in advance. These were those programs which featured guests on the campus. Among those who appeared before the campus microphones during the period covered by this report were Mr. James G. Hanlon, Associate Editor of *Movie-Radio Guide*, and Rubinoff and his Violin. Broadcasts from studios on the State Fair Grounds at Indianapolis also might be included under this division.

A summation of the activities of the Radio Division for the academic year 1941-42 reveals that a total of 298 broadcasts were presented using 4,950 minutes of radio time. A table giving in detail this broadcast program of Indiana State Teachers College provides a succinct summary.

This report of radio—the new dimension in the American home—would be incomplete without due recognition and a note of thanks to those who have made the broadcasts possible. The almost 5,000 minutes of radio time used by Indiana State Teachers College over WBOW would have cost the college approximately \$10,000 had charge been made by the station for such service. This time was, however, donated by WBOW to the college without charge of any kind. The college takes this opportunity to express its sincere thanks to Ensign Martin Leich, Manager of WBOW, now on active duty with the U. S. Navy, to Mr. George Jackson, Acting Manager of WBO W, and to Mr. Leo Baxter, Program Director, for the perfect co-operation which has made the broadcast service possible.

WHY FIRST GRADERS FAIL

(Continued from page 8)
possess what experts call reading readiness. Children of normal intelligence who entered school too young were unable to adjust themselves to the standard school program readily.

2. Physical handicaps were common. Four had extreme eye defects, three bad speech defects, three bad hearing defects, and two had minor imperfections of hearing. Malnutrition hindered a few, and one had bad tonsils and teeth.

3. Simply to leave the children home longer before admitting them to school may not be the solution. The home environment often is unwholesome. An improved environment, provided by the school but without pressure to "learn to read," seems more advisable.

The writer is just a classroom teacher. The responsibility of deciding the solution of the problems opened by teachers rests with the school administrators. Certainly the problems opened by the teacher are challenges. What will the administrators do? Perhaps as wise a thing as they can do would be to invite a larger degree of teacher participation in school administration.

ILLUSTRIOS ALUMNI

Edison E. Oberholtzer

Perhaps no alumnus of Indiana State has achieved so much distinction as city school superintendent than Dr. Oberholtzer (Ph.D., Columbia, 1934). For fourteen years Dr. Oberholtzer taught and administered schools in Indiana. Beginning in the rural schools of Clay County, he advanced to superintendencies at Carbon and Clinton and the assistant superintendency at Evansville. For one year he was an instructor of mathematics at Indiana State.

Dr. Oberholtzer achieved nationwide recognition while city superintendent at Tulsa, Oklahoma. For the past eighteen years he has been superintendent at Houston, Texas.

Teachers College Journal

TABLE I
A SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES OF THE RADIO DIVISION

Series	Performer	Number of Broadcasts	Total Radio Time (Minutes)
Classroom Consumers Club of the Air	Students	58	570
Eating for "Oomph"	Students	7	105
Guidance News	Students	7	105
Places in the News	Miss Helen Ederle	25	345
Science	Mr. John Sembower	50	450
State Fair	Mr. Alford Archer	5	75
Story Princess of the Music Box	Dr. William P. Allyn	55	495
Studio Orchestra	Students	6	180
Talent On Parade	Students	29	455
Victory Series	Students	29	455
Wabash Valley High School Series	High-school pupils	22	350
We, the Pupils, Speak	High-school pupils	16	240
Special Broadcasts	Guests	17	510
Total		298	4950

The President, A Kiss, And The Holy Bible

Clement T. Malan

Dr. Malan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Indiana, was Professor of Government at Indiana State Teachers College before assuming his present position.

Before man made us citizens, great nature made us men.

—James Russell Lowell

"No one single factor is the key to the interpretation of the history of America." Of the several driving forces that prompted men and women to brave the perils of an unknown land, religion was one of the most important ones.

Having set foot on American soil, they began at once to clear the land and drain the swamps. They built first the wooden cabins, and then selected a site for their church.

Religion was to be one of the chief factors on which to build a nation.

DR. MALAN

Some of the uses which Americans make of their religion are interesting. Congress has a chaplain. Its sessions open with prayer by the chaplain. Political conventions are opened with prayer. Oaths which are required of public officials are always made in the name of God. Even the money of the United States is glorified with the motto, "In God We Trust."

From the inauguration of Washington, in 1789, down to the inauguration of Franklin Delano Roosevelt in 1940, each President's religious philosophy of life has been expressed

in the reference which he selected from an open Bible placed before him as he took the oath of office. One wonders why such a precedent has never been broken. Some of the Presidents have kissed the Bible; some have not.

It is most natural for the President to turn to those passages which tend to reflect problems of the past that are similar to those of today. He turns to those verses which have given hope and satisfaction to mankind down through the ages.

The First Seventy-Five Years

During the first seventy-five years of the life of the American Democracy, the conflict of nationality loomed large. Under the capable leadership of George Washington, the ship of State was launched. But shortly after the first presidential election, unforeseen problems began to engulf and perplex the new nation. A multiplicity of perplexing problems confronted these pioneers of America.

Those early years brought about unparalleled discoveries, inventions, and unmatched philosophies of life. The past one hundred fifty years of time have revealed the fact that the builders built more wisely than they knew. They established a nation under the guiding hand of a Federal Constitution. The Federal Constitution had to be interpreted in terms of a progressing and developing democracy; had to be amended shortly after its adoption so that its true purpose might become a means by which men could maintain a democracy.

With all these conflicting problems during the first seventy-five years, it is not surprising that men feeling the tremendous burdens resting upon

them turned to Holy Writ for guidance and direction. It might be expected that they invoke the aid and blessing of One mightier than they. A brief review of each President's philosophy of religion as found in his inaugural address is here given.

The first President, history records, seemed to be a sad man. Washington had great hope in the new nation and was eager to help solve its problems. His religious philosophy is expressed in his inaugural address in the following words:

It would be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being who rules over the universe, who presides in the councils of nations, and whose providential aids can supply every human defect, that His benediction may consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States a government instituted by themselves for these essential purposes, and may enable every instrument employed in its administration to execute with success the functions allotted to his charge. In tendering this homage to the Great Author of every public and private good, I assure myself that it expresses your sentiments not less than my own, nor those of my fellow-citizens at large less than either . . . I now feel myself inexpressibly happy in a belief that Heaven, which has done so much for our infant nation, will not withdraw its providential influence before our political felicity shall have been completed . . . Thus supported by a firm trust in the Great Arbiter of the Universe, aided by the collected wisdom of the Union, and imploring the divine benediction on our joint exertions in the service of our country, I readily engage with you in the arduous but pleasing task of attempting to make a nation happy.

Then the tall, solemn figure clad in a dark brown suit with white stockings, a bag wig on his head and a stell-hilted sword at his side, in full view of the multitude below took the oath of office with his hand resting on a large Bible. After taking the oath of office, Washington bent and kissed the Holy Bible.

Records have not been kept of the Biblical references which the early Presidents chose. But the Presidents' inaugural addresses disclose the importance which they place upon religion.



DR. MALAN

Amid the confusion and uncertainty of establishing the new government, John Adams expressed his philosophy of religion in these words:

And may that Being who is supreme over all, the Patron of Order, the Fountain of Justice, and the Protector in all ages of the world of virtuous liberty, continue His blessing upon this nation and its government and give it all possible success and duration consistent with the ends of His providence.

Always laboring for the good of mankind, Thomas Jefferson, "God-gifted and God-armed for the battle of right against wrong" used these words:

May that Infinite Power which rules the destinies of the universe lead our councils to what is best, and give them a favorable issue for your peace and prosperity.

Madison's reference with regard to divine support during the perilous period in which he served as President was:

We have all been encouraged to feel in the guardianship and guidance of that Almighty Being whose power regulates the destiny of nations, whose blessings have been so conspicuously dispensed to this rising Republic, and to whom we are bound to address our devout gratitude for the past, as well as our fervent supplications and best hopes for the future.

During the next period of twenty years foreign affairs once again became a baffling problem. James Monroe and John Quincy Adams identified themselves vividly with this period by leaving to the Western Hemisphere the Monroe Doctrine. But President James Monroe, who possessed the ability to cope with foreign problems in a diplomatic manner, while maintaining "The Era of Good Feeling" in his own country, in his inaugural address spoke thus:

I enter on the trust to which I have been called by the suffrages of my fellow-citizens with my fervent prayers to the Almighty that He will be graciously pleased to continue to us that protection which He has already so conspicuously displayed in our favor.

As time moved on, the scholarly politician, John Quincy Adams, came to the highest seat of government. His belief in religion is explained in the following words:

I shall look for whatever success may attend my public service; and knowing that "except the Lord keep the city the watchman waketh but in vain," with fervent supplications for His favor, to His overruling providence I commit with humble but fearless confidence my own fate and the future destinies of my country.

The next decade ushered in the impetuous and dauntless Jackson. He will be remembered for his rugged position in many important questions: banking, the Mexican question, civil service. On assuming the Presidency Jackson said:

A firm reliance on the goodness of that Power whose providence mercifully protected our national infancy, and has since upheld our liberties in various vicissitudes, encourages me to offer up my ardent supplications that He will continue to make our beloved country the object of His divine care and gracious benediction.

Martin Van Buren came into the Presidency confronted with a commercial panic. In his inauguration address he humbly said:

For myself, conscious of but one desire, faithfully to serve my country, I throw myself without fear on its justice and its kindness. Beyond that I only look to the gracious protection of the Divine Being whose strengthening support I humbly solicit, and whom I fervently pray to look down upon us all. May it be among the dispensations of His providence to bless our beloved country with honors and with length of days.

For only a short time, a distinctive character with a vivid personality, a pioneer, a warrior, a sympathizer of the Western peoples, and one sometimes called "The Cincinnatus of the West" occupied the highest seat of government, William Henry Harrison. His religious expression is revealed in the following way:

I deem the present occasion sufficiently important and solemn to justify me in expressing my fellow-citizens a profound reverence for the Christian religion and a thorough conviction that sound morals, religious liberty, and a just sense of religious responsibility are essentially connected with all true and lasting happiness; and to that good Being who has blessed us by the gifts of civil and religious freedom, who watched over and prospered the labors of our fathers and has hitherto preserved to us institutions far exceeding in excel-

lence those of any other people, let us unite in fervently commanding every interest of our beloved country in all future time.

John Tyler, the Vice-President, succeeded to the position left vacant. Realizing that those were critical days, he expressed himself as follows:

Confiding in the protecting care of an everwatchful and overruling Providence, it shall be my first and highest duty to preserve unimpaired the free institutions under which we live and transmit them to those who shall succeed me in their full force and vigor My earnest prayer shall be constantly addressed to the all-wise and all-powerful Being who made me, and by whose dispensation I am called to the high office of President of this confederacy, understandingly to carry out the principles of that Constitution which I have sworn to "protect, preserve, and defend."

The American people will remember James Polk as the President who sincerely believed he was right in the course that he pursued. With a striking degree of frankness he stated in his inaugural message:

In assuming responsibilities so vast I fervently invoke the aid of the Almighty Ruler of the Universe in whose hands are the destinies of nations and of men to guard this Heaven-favored land against the mischiefs which without His guidance might arise from an unwise public policy. With a firm reliance upon the wisdom of Omnipotence to sustain and direct me in the path of duty which I am appointed to pursue, I stand in the presence of this assembled multitude of my countrymen to take upon myself the solemn obligation "to the best of my ability to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

"Old Rough and Ready," as Zachary Taylor was familiarly called, carried those qualities of fearlessness and decision into executive affairs. He asserted in his address:

The dictates of religion direct us to the cultivation of peaceful and friendly relations with all other powers.

With an unfaltering trust and hope in truth and goodness, Millard Fillmore "reigned" during one of the happiest and most prosperous periods of the country. Speaking as a typical American, Fillmore made this declaration:

I rely upon Him who holds in His hands the destinies of nations to endow me with the requisite strength for the task and to avert from our country the evils apprehended from the heavy calamity which has befallen us.

Franklin Pierce, a man reared in the company of excellent people, had a great desire that the people might enjoy continued prosperity. His philosophy of religion was:

I can express no better hope for my country than that the kind Providence which smiled upon our fathers may enable their children to preserve the blessings they have inherited.

A courtly and handsome man, his moral character and personal virtue above reproach, was James Buchanan. Of eminently religious turn, he did not join any church until late in life. He declared his intention to make a public profession upon retirement from the Presidential chair. He said at the time of his inauguration:

In entering upon this great office I must humbly invoke the God of our fathers for wisdom and firmness to execute its high and responsible duties in such a manner as to restore harmony and ancient friendship among the people of the several states and to present our free institutions throughout many generations . . . I shall now proceed to take the oath prescribed by the Constitution, whilst humbly invoking the blessing of Divine Providence on this great people.

Preliminary rumblings of slavery troubles were reaching alarming proportions. In the midst of a confused people, Abraham Lincoln, a master politician of his time and one of the greatest statesmen of all times, came forth with no fixed policy except his one supreme desire—peace. Union or secession became the primary issue of the day; slavery was of secondary importance. He was willing to save the Union without destroying slavery, if possible. But he was unalterably opposed to secession. When it became apparent that the destruction of the slave traffic was necessary to the preservation of the Union, Lincoln did not hesitate to strike down slavery. To whom should "Honest Abe" turn in such dire distress? Note his words:

If the Almighty Ruler of Nations,

with His eternal truth and justice, be on your side of the North, or on yours of the South, that truth and that justice will surely prevail by the judgment of this great tribunal of the American people . . . Intelligence, patriotism, Christianity, and a firm reliance on Him who has never yet forsaken this favored land are still competent to adjust in the best way all our present difficulty.

In 1862, Lincoln used these words:

It has pleased Almighty God to vouchsafe signal victories to the land and naval forces engaged in suppressing an internal rebellion. It is therefore recommended to the people of the United States that their next weekly assemblages in their accustomed places of worship which shall occur after notice of this proclamation shall have been received, they especially acknowledge and render thanks to our Heavenly Father for these inestimable blessings . . . and our national counsels to that end that they may speedily result in the restoration of peace.

On still another occasion, in speaking of both the North and South, Lincoln said:

Both read the same Bible and pray to the same God and each invokes His aid against the other . . . The prayers of both could not be answered. That of neither has been answered fully. The Almighty has His own purposes. "Woe unto the world because of offenses: for it must needs be that offenses come, but woe to that man by which the offense cometh." Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away . . . With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow, and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

As a result of the affliction and distress of the country, the chief problem of reconstruction assumed excessive dimensions. The Great Commissary had been assassinated. Strife and confusion prevailed everywhere. Amidst those trying circumstances Johnson assumed the Presidency. Although President Johnson proceeded upon nearly the same theory as that

expressed by Lincoln, he encountered antagonism. Whatever his shortcomings may have been, Johnson's love of the Union outweighed all other considerations; he gave it a courageous, consistent, and powerful support. In his inaugural address, he stated briefly:

Duties have been mine; consequences are God's.

Thus we see that the first seventy-five years of national existence was permeated with a religious philosophy that government must constantly and continuously attempt to solve its problems under the guiding hand and teachings of the Divine. Each President has spoken and his words have become history. The philosophy of religious guidance has developed into a philosophy of religious liberty and toleration.

While the utterances of our Presidents during the first seventy-five years of our national development indicate very clearly the religious philosophy underlying our democratic processes, the question arises as to what has been the tendency during the last seventy-five years. Have the Presidents continued to turn to Holy Writ at those times when timidity is coloring their approaching obligations?

The Second Seventy-Five Years

During the next seventy-five years democracy was to undergo even a greater test. The Constitution had existed as such for a longer period than most statesmen had anticipated. Reconstruction, consolidation, national banking and currency, public land distribution, foreign affairs, and political hostility were controlling factors of the second half of this period. Believing they had buried their hatreds in the Civil War strife, the people began to live once again with a reasonable amount of hope and security.

As Grant came to the Presidency, he found himself torn between politicians and leaders who were vying for the jobs and the distracted condition of the country. Extensions of the railway, speculation of Western lands, discovery of mining wealth in the Rockies, condition of public debt and the currency give a vivid picture

of the circumstances in which President Grant found himself. The Biblical references which each President used from Grant to Franklin D. Roosevelt are on record. Grant turned to Isaiah 2:2 which read as follows:

And it shall come to pass in the last days, that the mountain of the Lord's house shall be established in the top of the mountains, and shall be exalted above the hills: and all the nations shall flow unto it.

This scripture portrays the goal for which Grant was striving. In his second inauguration, he added to the above the third verse:

And many people shall go and say, Come ye, and first us go up to the mountain of the Lord, to the house of God of Jacob; and He will teach us of His ways and we will walk in His paths; for out of Zion shall go forth the law, and the word of the Lord from Jerusalem.

In his first address he said, in part:

I ask the prayers of the nation to Almighty God in behalf of this consummation.

In his second inaugural address he said:

Under Providence I have been called a second time to act as Executive over this great nation . . . Rather do I believe that our Great Maker is preparing the world, in His own good time, to become one nation, speaking one language, and when armies and navies will be no longer required.

Representing the typical American family, Hayes became President of the United States. He had been left a heritage of many perplexities. When speaking of his party and office, he declared:

He serves his party best who serves his country best . . . Honesty, capacity, and fidelity constitute the real qualifications for office.

On inauguration day, Hayes based his hope in Psalm 118:11, 12, 13:

They compassed me about; yes, they compassed me about: but in the name of the Lord I will destroy them.

They compassed me about like bees; they are quenches as the fire of thorns: for in the name of the Lord I will destroy them.

Thou hast thrust sore at me that I might fall: but the Lord helped me.

Many Presidents have found comfort in Psalms. Man is a creature of hopes, fears, desires, ambitions, and

longings. These are beautifully reflected in the Psalms. Here the hopes and fears of many ages are collected. They not only express the desires of the individual but national aspirations as well. International as well as national objectives are discussed. The despair of apparent injustice to both the individual, to the nation, and to the world at large are sounded. In the Psalms are songs for rejoicing for past deliverance just as we sing "America" and the "Star Spangled Banner" as our songs of deliverance. Men are represented as praying in the Psalms just as Washington prayed beneath the leafless tree for relief in that valley of sorrow and suffering and death known as Valley Forge.

The actions and utterance of the days of the Psalms are reflected in the actions and utterances of today. The past is past in time but not in the philosophy of life. In fact, the Psalms reflect every phase of this surging and throbbing life of ours. The Psalms reflect man reaching to the very highest pinnacle of exultation and to the very depths of despair. Between these two extremes every shade of human desire is depicted. Out of the realities of life, the Psalms came; out of the realities of life, the Psalms speak. In his inaugural message, Hayes said this:

Looking for the guidance of that Divine by which the destinies of nations and individuals are shaped, I call upon you, Senators, Representatives, Judges, fellow citizens, here and everywhere, to unite with me in an earnest effort to secure to our country the blessings, not only of material prosperity, but of justice, peace, and union—a union depending not upon the constraint of force, but upon the loving devotion of a free people; "and that all things may be so ordered and settled upon the best and surest foundations that peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety, may be established among us for all generations."

President Chester A. Arthur used Psalms 51:1, 2, 5:

In thee, O Lord, do I put my trust; let me never be ashamed: deliver me in thy righteousness.

Bow down thine ear to me; deliver me speedily: be thou my strong

rock, for an house of defense to save me.

For thou art my rock and my fortress; therefore for thy name's sake lead me, guide me.

Owing to the existing circumstances at the time, he came to the office very conscious of the strain and intensity of public feeling. In his message he said:

The wisdom of our fathers, foreseeing even the most dire possibilities, made sure that the government should never be imperiled because of the uncertainty of human life. Men may die, but the fabrics of our free institutions remain unshaken . . . I assume the trust imposed by the Constitution relying for aid on Divine Guidance and the virtue, patriotism, and intelligence of the American people.

The generation to which the war was history demanded new issues and new men. Payment of pension claims, foreign affairs, civil service reforms, and conservativeness in finance were problems attacked by Cleveland during his first four years. Stolid, unimaginative individual that he was, he evinced a loftiness of courage, an unwavering fidelity to conviction, and an unvarying disregard of his own mere personal interests that compelled the approval and admiration of all fair-minded people. Cleveland, too, turned to Psalms 112:4-10:

Unto the upright there ariseth light in the darkness: he is gracious, and full of compassion, and righteous.

A good man showeth favour, and lendeth; he will guide his affairs with dispositions.

Surely he shall not be moved for ever: the righteous shall be in everlasting remembrance.

He shall not be afraid of evil terrors: his heart is fixed, trusting in the Lord.

His heart is established, he shall not be afraid, until he see his desire upon his enemies.

He hath dispersed, he hath given to the poor; his righteousness endureth forever; his horn shall be exalted with honour.

The wicked shall see it, and be grieved; he shall gnash with his teeth, and melt away; the desire of the wicked shall perish.

In his address he stated:

By the Father of his Country our Constitution was commended for

adoption as the result of a spirit of amity and mutual concession. In that same spirit it shall be administered . . . And let us not trust to human effort alone, but humbly acknowledging the power and goodness of Almighty God, who presides over the destiny of nations, and who has at all times been revealed in our country's history, let us invoke His aid and His blessing upon our labors.

In Cleveland's second term he turned to Psalms 91:12-16, which read:

They shall bear thee up in their hands, lest thou dash thy foot against a stone.

Thou shalt tread upon the lion and adder; the young lion and the dragon shalt thou trample under feet.

Because he hath set his love upon me, therefore will I deliver him: I will set him on high, because he hath known my name.

He shall call upon me, and I will answer him: I will be with him in trouble: I will deliver him, and honor him.

With long life will I satisfy him, and show him my salvation.

In his inaugural address he said:

Deeply moved by the expression of confidence and personal attachment which has called me to this service, I am sure my gratitude can make no better return than the pledge I now give before God and these witnesses of unreserved and complete devotion to the interests and welfare of those who have honored me . . . It can not be doubted that our stupendous achievements as a people and our country's robust strength have given rise to heedlessness of those laws governing our national health which we can no more evade than human life can escape the laws of God and nature . . . The oath I now take to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States not only impressively defines the great responsibility I assume, but suggests obedience to constitutional commands as the rule by which any official conduct must be guided . . . Above all, I know there is a Supreme Being who rules the affairs of men and whose goodness and mercy have always followed the American people, and I know He will not turn from us now if we humbly and reverently seek His powerful aid.

Dividing the Cleveland administration was that of Benjamin Harrison. Firmly believing that "public office is a public trust" he emphasized

that stronger and better men were needed in public service. A self-made man, Harrison presents a model of our best manhood and citizenship, great abilities, splendid accomplishments, manliness of character and heroic virtue. He was another President who resorted to Psalms by selecting 121:1-6.

I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills, from whence cometh my help.

My help cometh from the Lord which made heaven and earth.

He will not suffer thy foot to be moved: he that keepeth thee will not slumber.

Behold, he that keepeth Israel shall neither slumber nor sleep.

The Lord is thy keeper; the Lord is thy shade upon thy right hand.

The sun shall not smite thee by day, nor the moon by night.

In his inaugural address he used the following words:

Entering thus solemnly into covenant with each other, we may reverently invoke and confidentially expect the favor and help of Almighty God that He will give to me wisdom, strength, and fidelity, and to our people a spirit of fraternity and a love of righteousness and peace.

Psalms was again referred to when Woodrow Wilson took the oath of the President. He used Psalm 119:45-48 and Psalm 46, respectively, in his inauguration ceremonies:

And take not the word of truth utterly out of my mouth; for I have hoped in thy judgment.

So shall I keep thy law continually for ever and ever.

And I will walk at liberty: for I seek thy precepts.

I will speak of my testimonies also before kings, and will not be ashamed.

And I will delight myself in thy commandments, which I have loved.

My hands also will I lift up unto thy commandments, which I have loved: and I will meditate in thy statutes.

God is our refuge and strength a very present help in trouble.

Therefore will not we fear, though the earth be removed and though the mountains be carried unto the midst of the sea;

Though the waters thereof roar and be troubled, though the mountains shake with the swelling thereof.

There is a river, the streams whereof shall make glad the city of God, the holy place of the tabernacles of the Most High.

God is in the midst of her; she shall not be moved: God shall help her, and that right early.

The heathen raged, the kingdoms were moved: he uttered his voice, the earth melted.

The Lord of hosts is with us: the God of Jacob is our refuge.

Come, behold the works of the Lord, what desolations he hath made in the earth.

He maketh wars to cease unto the end of the earth; he breaketh the bow, and cutteth the spear in sunder; he burneth the chariot in the fire.

Be still, and know that I am God: I will be exalted among the heathen, I will be exalted in the earth.

The Lord of hosts is with us; the God of Jacob is our refuge.

When elected to the office he came in the anticipation of effectuating a constructive policy of domestic reforms, but at the very outset, he encountered the menace of foreign complications. Wilson made himself a world figure through his formulation of peace terms and his advocacy of a league of nations to prevent wars.

In his first inaugural address he said:

Justice, and only justice, shall always be our motto . . . The feelings with which we face this new age of right and opportunity sweep across our heartstrings like some air out of God's own presence, where justice and mercy are reconciled and the judge and the brother one. We know our task to be no mere task of politics but a task which shall search us through and through, whether we be able to understand our time and the need of our people, whether we be indeed their spokesmen and interpreters, whether we have the pure heart to comprehend and the rectified will to choose our high course of action . . . Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do . . . God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me!

In the short administration of James A. Garfield, one finds an earnest and determined leader, one that is quick to see the value of an opportunity. With eighteen years of experience as a legislator, Garfield came to the Presidency with a strong hope of a successful administration.

Factional anxieties, poverty-stricken people, office-hungry seekers were situations which confronted Garfield.

He turned to Proverbs 21:1 on inauguration day:

The burden of the desert of the sea. As whirlwinds in the south pass through: so it cometh from the desert, from a terrible land.

In his address he said:

They will surely bless their fathers and their fathers' God that the Union was preserved, that slavery was overthrown, and that both races were made equal before the law.... Above all, upon our efforts to promote the welfare of this great people and their government, I reverently invoke the support and blessings of Almighty God.

Others have turned to the book of Proverbs in time of trial. There is an obvious reason. The book of Proverbs is known as one of the three books of the Old Testament that are called the Wisdom Books. The authors of these books were called wise men or the sages. They insisted that knowledge and wisdom are the true norms and guides of life. The interest of these wise men was in human life, thus they have been called humanists. Their belief was that wisdom must be universal. In this thought they were the forerunners of the modern concept of free public education. They believed in a guided and regulated type of life. The book of Proverbs reflects a wealth of wisdom, of sober and realistic observations, of kindly humor and biting sarcasm. The appeal covers all phases of life. Religiously, the concept is that right is rewarded while wrong is punished.

The wise men tried to inculcate the principles of a worthy life by glorifying wisdom at its source. True living consists, therefore, in harmony with the principle which pervades the universe and reveals itself to the mind of man.

William McKinley turned to Proverbs 16:20, 21 during his second term of the Presidency.

He that handlith a matter wisely shall find good; and whose trusteth the Lord, happy is he.

The wise in heart shall be called prudent: and the sweetness of the lips increaseth learning.

To carry him through his first four years he selected Second Chronicles 1:10:

Give me now wisdom and knowledge, that I may go out and come in

before this people: for who can judge this thy people that is so great?

The idea expressed in Chronicles was an all-inclusive one. It was the idea of "Whosoever will may come." It demanded righteousness, but demanded it of all men. Of course, no one could fully live up to the ideal but everyone might at least begin to share the idea of righteousness.

Forever carrying that favorite song, "Lead Kindly Light," in his heart, McKinley spoke in this way:

I assume the arduous and responsible duties of President of the United States, relying upon the support of my countrymen and invoking the guidance of Almighty God. "I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." This is the obligation I have reverently taken before the Lord Most High.

When McKinley succeeded himself, he said:

Entrusted by the people for a second time . . . and reverently invoking for my guidance the direction and favor of Almighty God, I should shrink from the duties this day assumed if I did not feel that in their performance I should have the co-operation of the wise and patriotic men of all parties.

Herbert Hoover also referred to Proverbs 29:18.

Where there is no wisdom, the people perish: but he that keepeth the law, happy is he.

Since Proverbs is a book of wise sayings, one can understand the comfort that Hoover derived from his selection. In his inaugural message, his philosophy of religious is thus expressed:

I ask the help of Almighty God in this service to my country to which you have called me.

Continuously preaching the doctrine of the strenuous life, the life of toil and effort, of labor and strife, Theodore Roosevelt is known to have lived such a life. His "Square Deal" philosophy was evident in both his words and action.

One might expect him to choose a dynamic Biblical reference. He chose James 1:22, 23. They read:

But be ye doers of the word, and

not hearers only, deceiving your own selves.

For if any be a hearer of the word, and not a doer, he is like unto a man beholding his natural face in a glass.

Beneath the whole epistle plainly lie two pervading and strongly felt principles: (1) the hatred of sham and deceit of every kind, (2) the conviction that man can not serve God and humanity on the one hand and mammon on the other. The aim to pierce through semblance and pretense to reality seems to be the leading motive of the author.

President William Howard Taft came to the Presidency at the time of a most intense and increasing public unrest. The people were demanding vital changes in the very framework of the government because they had seen many civic and political evils.

Taft, a man of much knowledge and a breadth of vision, honesty, and courage, set about to solve these evils. On inauguration day he said:

I invoke the considerate sympathy and support of fellow citizens and the aid of the Almighty God in the discharge of my responsible duties.

He chose as his Biblical reference First Kings 3:9, 10, 11, 12:

Give therefore thy servant an understanding heart to judge thy people, that I may discern between good and bad: for who is able to judge this thy so great a people?

And the speech pleased the Lord that Solomon had asked this thing.

And God said unto him, Because thou hast asked this thing, and hast not asked for thyself long life; neither hast asked for riches for thyself, nor hast asked the life of thine enemies; but hast asked for thyself understanding to discern judgment.

Behold, I have done according to thy words, lo, I have given thee a wise and an understanding heart.

Kings give the title to this period of history but they are not the heroes. It is a period of great national awakening one of successful warfare; of increasing endeavors; of poets, artists, architects, and philosophers. It is a time devoted to the ideas of the welfare of the underprivileged man, what one may call the social human relations.

Warren G. Harding called his country back to paths of peace; he

pointed the way to peace; he sought for men and nations a peace, the only true and lasting peace, based on justice and right. His inaugural address was a speech on Americanism. These thoughts came to the President as he faced the task before him:

Surely there must have been God's intent in the making of this new-world Republic . . . We have seen civil, human, and religious liberty verified and glorified. In the beginning the Old World scoffed at our experiment; today our foundations of political and social belief stand unshaken, a precious inheritance to ourselves, an inspiring example of freedom and civilization to all mankind. Let us express renewed and strengthened devotion, in grateful reverence for the immortal beginning, and utter our confidence in the supreme fulfillment . . . We crave friendship and harbor no hate. I would rejoice to acclaim the era of the Golden Rule and crown it with the autocracy of service . . . But here are a hundred million, with common concern and shared responsibility, answerable to God and country . . . I have taken the solemn oath of office on that passage of Holy Writ wherein it is asked, "What doth the Lord require of thee but to do justly, and to love, mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God?" This I plighted to God and country.

He also drew from the statesman prophet Micah 6:8 these words:

He hath showed thee, O man, what is good; and what doth the Lord require of thee, but to do justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God?

President Calvin Coolidge took the oath of office late one night in the Vermont hills. His father administered the oath a few minutes after the death of Warren G. Harding was made public. Coming out of the hectic conditions arising from the war, burdened by debts and enormous expenses as everybody was, it at once became Coolidge's policy to give business a chance to resuscitate itself.

Calvin Coolidge selected from the Bible First John 1:1:

In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God.

First John describes a period when pagan religion held sway. It must not be thought that pagan religion was

all bad or weak. It expressed genuine human aspirations and enough to keep these aspirations alive. But they were exclusive; they were made for the few; they were for a chosen people.

Coolidge declared in his inaugural address:

We need not concern ourselves much about the right of property if we will faithfully observe the right of persons . . . America seeks no earthly empire built on blood and force. No ambition, no temptation lures her to thought of foreign dominion. The legions which she sends forth are armed, not with the sword, but with the cross. The higher state to which she seeks the allegiance of all mankind is not of human, but of divine origin. The cherishes no purpose save to merit the favor of Almighty God.

In the face of some of the most baffling problems, such as high taxes, shrunken values, decreasing markets, withered industrial enterprise, bread lines, unemployment, Franklin D. Roosevelt became President of the United States in 1933. Plans must be made and executed to relieve these conditions. But back of all material planning, he realized that there were certain values which were more important than just material values. Those values which he considered essential to a solution of the everyday problems of life are found in the thirteenth chapter of First Corinthians. This hymn of praise reflects man's thinking at its best. The words glow with a white heat of fervor and emotion. The sublime poetry of this chapter is found in the concluding verse:

Now abideth faith, hope, love, these three; but the greatest of these is love.

These three basic ideals are certainly necessary in democratic government. In fact, these three are a necessity for every great movement. Creeds may have some value, dogmas may give some satisfaction, economic as well as political theories are of importance, but more important than all of these is service to one's fellow men.

With his dynamic personality and his clear, correct radio voice, Franklin D. Roosevelt used the following words in his first inaugural address.

Restoration calls, however, not for

changes in ethics alone. This nation asks for action, and action now . . . We face the arduous days that lie before us in the warm courage of national unity; with the clear consciousness of seeking old and precious moral values; with the clear satisfaction that comes from the stern performance of duty by old and young alike . . . They have made me the present instrument of their wishes. In the spirit of the gift, I take it. In this dedication of a nation, we humbly ask the blessing of God. May He protect each and every one of us. May He guide me in the days to come.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt used the following words from the Apostle Paul found in First Corinthians 15 on all three occasions of his inauguration.

Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a thinking cymbal.

And though I have the gift of prophesy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing.

And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, its profiteth me nothing.

Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up.

Doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil;

Rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth;

Beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things.

Charity never faileth; but whether there be prophecies, they shall fail; whether there be tongues, they shall cease; whether there be knowledge, it shall vanish away.

For we know in part, and we prophesy in part.

But when that which is perfect is come, then that which is in part shall be done away.

When I was a child, I spoke as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; But when I became a man, I put away childish things.

For now we see through a glass, darkly; but then face to face; now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known.

And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity.

Youth and Community Action

Helen Ederle

Miss Ederle is instructor of Education at Indiana State Teachers College, specializing in youth problems and guidance. The first book review in this issue of *The Journal*, written by Miss Ederle, correlates with this article by her.



MISS EDERLE

supreme obligation to help boys and girls to catch and hold the vision of a finer American culture, and to fire them with a will to play their parts in an indomitable advance toward it."¹

The Challenge to Every Community

For the first time in the history of America, the public came to school during sugar rationing week. The effects of this mass visitation are far-reaching. Now the public knows the teachers are human, the schools are efficient, and the democratic processes still prevail.

The way has been opened for the school to assume more leadership in regard to youth problems as well as community problems affecting all age levels. It is time to come to grips with the realities that confront youth and get action more rapidly where the needs are urgent. The discussion of problems is not sufficient since carrying through to completion must be the watchword in war as well as on the home front. The program for youth in every community must be

definite, personal, realistic, and constructive in 1942, and for years to come. The following questions should be carefully considered by every community:

1. What assistance is offered to pupils who drop out of school prior to or after sixteen years of age?
2. How much follow-up will be given the senior of 1942?
3. How many agencies working with youth and for youth are co-ordinated into a community council?
4. Are school teachers and community leaders fully aware of the great changes in the situations of young people which have come about in the last generation?
5. Do they know the special problems of youth in their own community?
6. Are they willing to submerge personal or agency interests in cooperative efforts?

Community Surveys

There is responsibility resting on the school to take more initiative for determining the facts in a community through a local survey.²

If the community is small, trained technicians are not necessary since teachers and administrators can make a local survey at small expense. As was previously stated, school and community have been introduced through registration and sugar rationing. Rapport has been established and the stage has been set for a factual study of local conditions in the areas of vocational guidance to meet employment needs, health facilities, recreational facilities, delinquency conditions, the role of youth in civilian defense, etc.

Community Planning Programs

After the survey has been made

¹ *Youth and the Future*, American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, January, 1942, pp. 220, 222.

² M. M. Chambers, and Howard M. Bell, *How to Make a Community Youth Survey*, American Council on Education, 1939.

and interpreted, community planning can be formulated in terms of local needs. Just what the problems will be no one can anticipate exactly but it is evident that action will be needed in certain areas:

1. Aid in securing employment now.
2. How can employers, organized labor, and the school develop training programs?
3. How can vocational guidance training, job placement, and follow-up be developed as a community service to youth?
4. Are there work projects of great value to all that could be carried out by idle youth and the community—a tennis court, a victory garden, a park?
5. What can youth do in first aid, air raids, safety programs?

From the smallest to the largest community, realistic facts are needed about the problems of youth in regard to employment, unemployment, educational opportunities, military opportunities, recreational needs, mental hygiene needs, and the realization of what the democratic concept means.

This community planning should be done by young and old working together. Young people have ideas as to what their needs are and how the community can be improved. They have idealism and courage to try to improve their local community. Therefore, conferences will be needed from time to time. The personnel of the conference should include the local government officials, urban and rural, school administrators and teachers, leaders of private organizations, influential citizens, and representative young people.

Community Relations With the State and Nation

Bureaucratic institutions can not evolve the patterns of community action needed everywhere today. Both young and old need the awakening of the spirit of self-help and local initiative. Vast resources for community betterment, both material and human, exist all round us and are not being utilized. The school must lead the way in utilizing these resources in the cultural and welfare patterns that more nearly meet the needs of

every individual. All programs must also be related to the requirements of civilian defense and the war effort since no community exists in isolation in 1942.

It behooves the leadership in each community to keep constantly informed concerning the numerous forms of stimulation and assistance, financial and otherwise, that are available from state and national sources. In planning and carrying out local surveys of youth, the Indiana State Teachers College and other higher institutions of learning in Indiana will furnish advice and assistance. The State Department of Public Instruction in Indiana, the United States Office of Education, the United States Employment Service Division, the co-operative Agricultural Extension Service, and federal, state, and local agencies for civilian defense, also will assist the local community in planning its youth program.

While less financial assistance will be given in the future through the N.Y.A. and the W.P.A., other national agencies will encourage many types of activities on a twelve-months basis. Whatever happens will include the general pattern of large-scale programs and, at the same time, reflect the initiative and vision of the local area involved.

What Can the Community Council Do?

The community council will need to concern itself with the total problem of youth. It will need to work through subcommittees concerned with civic education, occupational adjustment, health, recreation, etc. The machinery of organization should be simple. Every committee member, however, should be genuinely interested in the work of his committee and should feel deep personal responsibility for the job to be done in his community. The youth program will evolve in terms of needs as efficient citizens try to get action.

The successful achievement of even a small problem will generate local pride and self-respect. One success will lead to new goals and more successful achievements until a com-

munity awakening will be evident as both old and young plan, work, and share together. Since no two communities are alike, the following list of activities is only suggestive of what a community co-ordinating council can actually do:

1. A community survey.
2. A community recreation program.
3. A village fair.
4. A community band and orchestra.
5. A community chorus and choral speaking group.
6. A community hiking group.
7. A nature study group.
8. A community creative arts program including the fine arts, practical art, dramatics, pageantry, etc.
9. A wild flower sanctuary.
10. The preservation of historic, literary, or other landmarks.
11. A historical museum.
12. A community library.
13. School grounds, public buildings attractively landscaped.
14. Good drainage, improved, clean streets, hygienic living conditions.
15. Better moving pictures.
16. Art exhibits.
17. Guidance-counseling service.
18. Adult education of many types in connection with the school.
19. Discussion groups and local Town Meetings of the Air.
20. Community welfare and defense drives.
21. Community civilian defense organizations including first aid, Red Cross, air wardens, auxiliary police, etc.
22. The school program organized on a twelve-months basis for both young people and adults. For the "duration," stress will be placed upon aviation, mathematics, science, technical shop courses, social studies, business, trade and clerical occupations, nursing, nutrition, first aid, and physical fitness.
23. The school of the future will be the intellectual center of the community where the basic social, economic and political issues will be discussed and an-

alyzed and the social sensitivity of each citizen will be increased

The Role of the School

The school as an institution is in a position to stimulate communities to organize co-ordinating counsels to meet more effectively the needs of youth. To conserve and develop the potentialities of youth for war and peace will require the skillful leadership which well-trained administrators and teachers possess in greater measure than has been utilized. If there is to be a finer America after the smoke clears, citizens of all ages must be "fired with a will to play their parts in an indomitable advance toward it." These are the days which demand action. Now that school and community have been introduced to each other, it will be much easier to discuss local needs for youth and for the community as a whole. The opportunities for community progress are unlimited if all groups co-ordinate their efforts.

As one looks about, it is evident that there is a rebirth of the frontier spirit of self-reliance in many parts of America. However, community resources are waiting to be tapped in many places in 1942. Let us hope that through the leadership of the school the problems of youth will be met with as much courage as O'Hare and Kelly met the enemy. When co-ordinating councils come to grip with reality concerning local needs, we will know that the "pioneer spirit" still lives.

ILLUSTRIOS ALUMNI

Emery T. Filbey

At present vice president of the University of Chicago, Mr. Filbey got his start in Indiana. He was born at Cambridge City and taught in Indiana five years before graduating from Indiana State in 1905. Then for two more years he remained in his home state, teaching at Bluffton.

Mr. Filbey started his work with the University of Chicago as an instructor in the university high school. From that position he advanced to a professorship and then into university administration. He has been in his present position since the advent of the Hutchins regime.

Around the Reading Table

Youth and the Future. The General Report of the American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., 1942. 290 pp. Price: \$2.50. Cloth.

Youth and the Future will be and should be read and discussed by laymen as well as educators in the months ahead, since it is a comprehensive treatment of the many previous pamphlets of The American Council on Education established in 1935. It is an attempt to synthesize the research of the last seven years as the basis for a "long-term point of view" for post-war thinking and planning.

To further its use as a handbook for discussion groups, M. M. Chambers has prepared a clear-cut study guide called *Looking Ahead With Youth*. It includes questions on the text, problems for further study and detailed recent references for additional reading. All the publications of The American Youth Commission are listed in *Youth and the Future* along with an Index. The Manual and the Index make the book truly functional for study and discussion groups. It is to be hoped that readers will be challenged to see all sides of the questions and not be indoctrinated without a careful analysis of factual data based upon recent research.

Youth and the Future presents the background, the present status, the trends, and the educational and civic implications of these trends in four major areas.

From the Introduction by Owen D. Young to the Conclusion by Dorothy Canfield Fisher there are these general assumptions:

1. The most important problem confronting Americans today is the successful prosecution of the war.
2. Full and steady employment is the greatest problem of the post-war period.
3. Many readjustments in the basic American economy are inevitable.
4. Substantial programs of public work will be necessary for steady employment in the future.

5. Government stimulation and expansion in basic industries producing for interstate commerce will be essential.

6. The American people possess the power to preserve democratic government without giving up liberties. "It is assumed that the American people will continue to exercise their native qualities of good will, courage, and foresight, and that progress will be made toward the realization of the American dream of universal opportunity in a land of peace and freedom."

As was stated in the beginning, *Youth and the Future* will stimulate both educators and laymen to come to grips with their local youth problems in terms of the social responsibility of the community which requires serious thought, careful planning, and courageous action.

—Helen Ederle
Indiana State Teachers College

Seay, Maurice F., and McGlothlin, William J. (editors). *Elementary Education in Two Communities of the Tennessee Valley*. Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, 1942. 182 pp.

This bulletin is based upon reports written by teachers and principals of the Wilson Dam elementary school near Sheffield, Alabama, and the Gilberstville elementary school located at the edge of the construction village of Kentucky Dam, near the mouth of the Tennessee River. Both were projects of the T.V.A. The former school was discontinued in 1941 after serving the needs of the Muscle Shoals area; the latter, though in a typically rural region, applied many of the principles of its predecessor without committing the sin of imitation.

Both staffs assumed responsibility for the guidance of the pupils' growth toward healthful living, intellectual competence, emotional poise, and social responsibility. Efforts toward the accomplishment of these ends make a story of absorbing interest; an abundance of pictures showing teacher-pupil activity help to clarify purposes.

Both schools have received many visitors from near and far, who have

praised the use of community resources, the initiative of the children, and the spirit of cooperation throughout the schools. Each seems, in short, to have retained the better phases of a formal program, while at the same time introducing, gradually, a progressive educational program.

—Fay Griffith

Indiana State Teachers College
Ayres, Louise Youngs, and Roduner, Kenneth. *Adolescent Voice Ranges and Materials for Adolescent Voices*. University of Oregon, 1942. 50 pp.

The need for continued study of the adolescent voice is definitely shown in the widespread interest in this field; equal attention had been given to developing skills and appreciation. The adolescent voice has been a problem of constant research to music educators.

Miss Ayres and Mr. Roduner have given a thorough investigation of the range of voices, taking for their experiment a cross section of typical seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade classes. The study was conducted on a numerical basis and gave no consideration to special ability in music. The authors have recognized the fact that the process of learning the proper use of the voice, either in speaking or singing, is of great importance. Keeping in mind the character and limitations of the voice of this period, they have examined eight books of vocal materials. They report that very few collections meet the needs of a group in which voices are in a state of continuous change. In the case of the boys, songs with limited range and with voice parts written closely together are desirable. For the girls, range is also an important consideration but more attention can be given to the color of the voice, since the change here is not so noticeable as with the boy. It is safe to assume that any vocal work should lie within the central three-fifths of the voice range. The adolescent voice is easily strained and can be permanently ruined by overtaxing. The thinking teacher of vocal music realized that it is injurious to any voice to use the extreme high or low notes continuously. Unison work is not advisable because of

the varied ranges and constant change.

It is important for appreciation growth that children sing through the changing voice period, but always under the constant watchfulness of the teacher. Activity is the guiding force of the adolescent, and participation brings enjoyment.

—Ruth B. Hill
Indiana State Teachers College

Selling Home Furnishings. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 216, U. S. Office of Education, 1941, 270 pp.

This book fills a long-felt need for a source of information in sound sales techniques and merchandise knowledge in the retail furniture trade. The George-Deen distributive education program has focused attention on the lack of well organized materials available to salespeople who need such training. It is gratifying to both trainees and salespeople to learn that the Business Education Service of the U. S. Office of Education has made considerable progress in making available an assortment of such books in the various fields of retailing. With the increased attention to color schemes, improvement of tastes, and increased tendency to shop for furniture, comes a demand for better informed salespeople.

As stated in the foreword, "The subject matter has been arranged in units each of which is intended to be made the basis for a minimum of two hours' discussion and study." Each unit is followed by a set of discussion questions and a reading list. The major portion of the book is given over to merchandise information useful in the trade. The first 46 pages are devoted to salesmanship principles and techniques of a very practical sort.

The subject of style and period furniture is handled in such a manner that it is both interesting and helpful to the salesman. The following statement is expressive of the author's point of view. "We must remember that most of the historic styles were expressions of the life of the court and aristocracy. Period furniture was made by great artists, and often was elaborately ornate, sumptuous and

enormously costly . . . We can adapt them to machine production and mass distribution. But we can add to their desirability by explaining their aristocratic ancestry." The more common types of furniture construction and the merits of each are explained and well illustrated.

An introduction to the art of interior decoration is presented in 18 pages. The author has been able to retain the salesman's point of view in this chapter but at the same time show how it is possible to render a much greater service to the customer with his improved taste in home beautifying.

Other units are devoted to sleep equipment, floor coverings and draperies, living-room furniture, dining-room furniture, sunrooms, bedroom furniture, accessories, and ensemble selling. In each case merchandise facts are combined with suggestions on how to build value into the product.

Several persons have had a hand in the preparation of this manual. Although such a plan has the advantage of specialization there is a degree of duplication of material. For example, ensemble selling is treated in various parts of the book and "closing the sale" is treated most extensively in the chapter on Furnishing the Bedroom, Sunroom, and Breakfast Room. Most furniture dealers prize very highly the salesmen who know the contents of such a book and practice the suggestions made. It should be "required reading" for every furniture salesman.

—George J. Eberhart
Indiana State Teachers College

Dolch, Edward W. *The Basic Sight Word Test on the Basic Sight Vocabulary.* The Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois, 1942.

The new Dolch Basic Sight Word Test is a test of the 220 "service words" which make up seventy per cent of the vocabulary of first readers and sixty-five per cent of second and third readers rather than the usual large word list.

The purpose of the test is to determine to what extent the children have mastered this basic list. It is divided

into two parts. The list constituting Part I is on one side of the sheet, and the list making up Part II is opposite. With this division, young children may be tested on the first list, and then, following a rest period or at a later time, take the remainder of the test. Older children may take both parts together, doing one side, and then turning over and doing the other side.

The directions for administering and checking the test are simple and concise. The test is given by asking the children to circle one word on each line. The first time this is done is called the "first trial," and covers one-fourth of the words of the Basic Vocabulary (if both parts are done together). Later on, a new set of sheets is given out, and the children are asked to circle one word on each line as a "second trial," a new list of test words being used. There are four such lists of test words for each part, so that, if papers are given out four times, four "trials" can be made and every word on the sheet tested.

An added use of the test is to check individuals on this Basic Sight Vocabulary. The information revealed by the individual tests is that it shows which words the individual does not know, and the kind of mistakes he makes when he attempts to identify unknown words.

The price of the test is one dollar.
—Helen Price
Indiana State Teachers College

Fine, Benjamin. *College Publicity in the United States.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, 178 pp.

There is no more striking proof that the contempt in which newspapermen held the old-fashioned press agent disappeared with the advent of the modern publicity or public relations men than the sympathetic treatment given college publicity practices by Benjamin Fine of the Education Department of the New York Times in his analytical study, "College Publicity in the United States."

Dr. Fine reviews the mushroom growth of college publicity departments throughout the country, analy-

zes the publicity practices in use, recommends the foundation of a professional school for publicists, and even goes so far as to urge that college publicity departments be better financed. Newspapermen and publicists of a bygone generation, upon reading this book, would be ready to proclaim that indeed the lion and the lamb have lain down together.

Public relations, as used by Dr. Fine, refers to the entire body of problems related to the general field of publicity. He finds that the development of American college publicity is a wholly healthy sign that leaders of higher education are aware of the role they play in a democratic society. "On the basis of present trends, it is possible to predict that publicity will achieve a growing influence in the field of higher education."

Approximately four-fifths of the colleges have publicity departments. Ninety-eight per cent of the college presidents in the sample studied by Dr. Fine considered publicity to be "important." The fact that colleges have not arrived at any standardized method of operation and management of publicity suggests to the author that the entire field still is in its formative stages.

"On a different plane, schools of engineering, architecture, law, medicine, dentistry, education, podiatry, commerce, and a score of other professions are today firmly entrenched in our educational system. The time has arrived when publicity should be accorded equal recognition. It has passed beyond its elementary stages, and is now entitled to the respect and recognition of society." This closing statement would not be remarkable from a publicity man, but from a newspaperman of Fine's standing in American journalism it is both remarkable and significant.

—John F. Sembower
Indiana State Teachers College

Turse-Durost Shorthand Achievement Test. World Book Company, 1941.

Gone are the days when the shorthand teacher needs to spend long hours of tedious and monotonous

checking of verbatim transcripts to diagnose difficulties and assign grades. In the commercial field, noted for its endless number of papers, this is significant, particularly in these busy days. It is the Turse-Durost Achievement Test which saves time for the teacher.

The test measures the same skills as a verbatim transcript; a high correlation was shown between the new and old methods of testing in a carefully controlled experiment. The make-up of the test is well-balanced as its items measure skill and knowledge in shorthand principles, penmanship, spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, and sentence structure.

How does the test function? Five letters are dictated and "taken" in the usual manner, but here the similarity with traditional testing methods terminates. Each pupil is given a booklet containing transcripts of the five letters. The transcripts contain omissions and errors which the student is to fill in and correct from the interpretation of his own shorthand notes on the lines provided in the booklet, enabling the checker to score the test by use of a strip key.

Norms for first- and second-year students are based on testings in twenty-six high schools.

The balanced preparation of the test and the proved correlation between the results of the two methods recommend the use of this material for testing purposes and justify the teacher's adoption of a time-saving program.

—Ruth Temple
Indiana State Teachers College

Belting, Paul E., and Belting, Natalia Maree. *The Modern High School Curriculum.* The Garrard Press, Champaign, Ill., 1942. 276 pp.

Philosophies of education disagree as to what the aims of education should be and how schools should function in order that accepted aims be achieved. Some of the more progressive theories of education would do away with formal school subjects and curricula as such, building each child's curriculum around his own individual interests and aptitudes as cores. Others would have more-or-

less formal instruction, but with subject matter organized into large areas of human interest, such as health, social relationships, recreational activities, etc. The traditional philosophy uses formal fields of subject matter, such as English, mathematics, science and home economics. Doctors Belting have designed their book for the traditional school.

They assume that "education is a method of communicating the culture of society to its various members," and the means through which the school will do this is the curriculum. All but the opening and closing chapters of the book are devoted to the traditional formal headings. English, social studies, business education, home economics, health and physical education, science, art, practical arts, agriculture, music, mathematics, and foreign language, each receives a chapter averaging sixteen pages in length. Even guidance is thrown into the formalized category, with a fifteen-page chapter which includes a formalized outline of instruction for four years used in an Illinois high school.

At the end of each chapter except the first and last is a list of bibliographical or other references. These are grouped under headings of "Curriculum References," "Readings," other "References," and "Text," in no case giving the publishers or dates of publication; "Periodicals" and "Pamphlets and Bulletins," without mention of any particular articles in the same, and in most cases without addresses or publishers; and "Visual Aids," "Motion Pictures," and "Recordings," some with and some without addresses or producers. The illustrations are largely from Illinois, in which state the authors reside, one being connected with the State Department of Public Instruction and one with the State University.

All the treatment within the chapters is as scientific and practical as could be expected in a book which follows the traditional pattern and contains less than three hundred pages. Any one interested in curriculum study, within the bounds of the conventional pattern, should find

helpful material in this 1942 publication. Third edition, revised and enlarged. —J. R. Shannon
Indiana State Teachers College

Johnson, B. Lamar, and others. *General Education in the American High School*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942. 319 pp.

Many modern educators, both theorists and practitioners, are moving in the direction of what often is called progressive education. Perhaps the chief "revolution" of progressive education lies in its curriculum modifications. This book, written by fourteen men—twelve college men and two high-school principals—features modern trends in American secondary education chiefly as expressed through the curriculum. The writers are the General Education Committee of the Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. "In no sense does the present volume or any part of it represent a pronouncement of policy by the North Central Association or by its Commission on Curricula. Rather, this volume is illustrative of the Commission's desire to encourage the study and discussion of vital educational problems."

Aside from an introduction, there are twelve chapters. The first one, a very strong chapter, presents the need for America's having genuinely democratic high schools. It, together with the five succeeding chapters constitutes the "background and bases" of the volume. The second strongest chapter in the Part One is the sixth, which shows that the issues in American secondary education are social, psychological, and educational. Part Two considers "general education in action." The two strongest chapters in this half are the ninth and eleventh, dealing with rural high schools and adolescents' needs for work experience, respectively.

Like almost any book written by several separate individuals, there is somewhat less coherence but more authenticity than might be expected otherwise. In like manner, some chapters are much stronger and better

written than others. On the whole, the book is a distinct contribution to modern literature on American secondary education and should be read carefully by any one claiming to be abreast of modern trends in the field.

Some of the chapters are well supported by bibliographical references, and the introduction has seven half-tones which add nothing to the total worth of the book.

The list price is \$2.25.

—J. R. Shannon
Indiana State Teachers College

Clement, John Addison. *Manual for Analyzing and Selecting Textbooks*. The Garrard Press, Champaign, Ill., 1942. 119 pp. (The following statement is quoted from the book's first chapter, entitled "The Purpose of this Manual.")

The chief purpose of this manual is to serve as a guide to superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers and others in the analysis, appraisal and selection of textbooks. In recent years, self-appointed groups have made a number of unfavorable reports concerning textbooks used in the schools, especially in the field of social studies. It seems quite desirable for any group, school or non-schol, to have in mind certain minimum items and criteria when examining textbooks and passing judgment on the same.

This manual contains certain items and criteria which are felt to be consequential whenever analyzing and appraising and selecting textbooks. Chapters II and III characterize and explain, at some length, items which are felt to be common to any and all textbooks used in elementary and secondary schools. The purpose of the following two chapters is to enable all persons to be clear about the items used in the general analysis and general appraisal outlines. Usually the explanation of such items has not accompanied published check lists, or outlines, or score sheets to be used in judging the worth of textbooks. It is recommended, therefore, that Chapters II and III of this manual be carefully read and re-read before attempting to use the general analysis and appraisal outline sheets submit-

ted in detail in Chapter IV.

The general analysis and appraisal outlines for use in the examination of textbooks in all fields are submitted in Chapter IV of this manual. It is desirable to use one copy of these general outlines or score sheets, in the instance of each textbook analyzed. These outlines or score sheets should be placed in the hands of all individuals who examine textbooks, and will serve as guides. Separate copies will be published by the Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois, and may be ordered in different-sized packages from them for individual use by respective examiners.

Since textbooks will be used in the majority of the private and public schools for many years to come, if not permanently, it seems clear that they should be examined with the greatest care possible before adoption. It is believed that the general analysis and appraisal outlines, or score sheets, presented in Chapter IV of this manual will be found to be very helpful to all persons who are responsible for selecting textbooks. It is suggested, therefore, that the general analysis and appraisal outlines represent the minimum items to be considered. Then, in addition to the use of the general outlines, it will frequently be found profitable to supplement these through the additional use of differentiated or special outlines, such, for example, as are suggested in Chapter V and VI of this manual.

—John Addison Clement
University of Illinois

Education for Victory. The Official Bi-weekly of the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Replacing School Life for the Duration of the War. (Sold by Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., \$1.00 a year.) "A New Recruit Reports for Duty!"

With the above challenging caption *Education for Victory* appeared on the scene a few months ago. Because of its complete and varied contents, it should be on the professional reading list of every teacher and administrator from the pre-school through the graduate school. In these

days of rapidly changing educational scenes, it will enable busy educators to keep up with the following areas:

1. News of national war programs which touch or need education.

2. Executive orders, pronouncements, war policies.

3. New publications, films, posters, etc., useful to schools and libraries.

4. What schools, colleges, and libraries everywhere are doing to win the war.

Through *Education for Victory* one will be able to follow the news of the sixteen war agencies that affect education including the Selective Service, Office of Civilian Defense, U. S. Employment Service, etc. Some fifty divisions will be covered in this bi-weekly publication—a permanent file of which every progressive teacher and administrator will want for his own use.

—Helen Ederle
Indiana State Teachers College

Guidance Research Bulletin No. 1. The Present Status of High School Guidance As It Affects the Seniors of 1942 in Indiana. State Department of Public Instruction, April, 1942. 26 pages.

In the Foreword, Dr. Clement T. Malan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, has traced briefly the beginning of a series of bulletins in Guidance from the time the Education Study Group of the American Association of University Women of Indianapolis offered their co-operation to the report of the subcommittee to the State Board of Education in March, 1942. (Data were secured by December 1, 1941.)

As the title indicates, this was a survey study of the present status of high-school guidance as it affects the seniors of 1942 in these ten areas: enrollment; drop out level; number of graduates in 1942; number who expect to enter institutions of higher learning; number who expect further training in special schools; number expecting to enter gainful occupations; number expecting to secure employment in the local community; guidance techniques used to assist these seniors; majors in high school; and variations in guidance programs

in township, town, and city high schools in Indiana.

The conclusions are based upon data supplied by 571, or 46 per cent of the 805 high schools to which the above questions were sent. Data are presented in ten tables with schools classified as township, town and city—a total of 18,836 seniors.

It is the hope of the Committee that high-school principals, teachers, and laymen will study the data, the implications of which are challenging. Guidance needs are great and it is not easy to determine: (1) why the holding power of the high school is stronger for girls than boys; (2) the basis on which 21 of every 100 seniors plan to enter college; (3) whether those 20 boys and 16 girls of every 100 seniors who expect to enter gainful occupations have received training for the type of employment best suited to their abilities, interests and aptitudes; (4) why 15 seniors of every 100 plan to enter special schools for additional training—twice as many girls as boys planning to enter special schools; (5) why 21 of every 100 seniors have indefinite plans and, perhaps, will flounder for lack of proper adjustment; (6) why 64 of every 100 expect to secure employment away from the local community with more girls than boys leaving the community; (7) why no device or guidance technique commonly accepted by guidance authorities was reported by the principals in the choice for a college, or a vocation, or of job placement; (8) why majors in high school subjects were not chosen in keeping with the intentions of 79 of every 100 who do not expect to enter college—training that would yield the maximum of personal utility.

—Helen Ederle
Indiana State Teachers College

Evenden, E. S. Teacher Education in a Democracy at War. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1942. 118 pp. Paper bound. Seventy-five cents.

In time of war education can no more proceed "as usual" than any other social enterprise. Teachers, schools, and colleges are eager to make all essential adjustments and

to play their part in the common sacrifice. In order to provide guidance for them in this task, the Commission on Teacher Education requested its chairman, E. S. Evenden of Teachers, Columbia University, to assemble in compact form the main lessons of the past bearing on the subject and to prepare a brief outline of fundamental educational principles.

Mr. Evenden's report has now been issued by the American Council on Education. In the first chapter the general implications of the war are discussed with regard to the fundamentally opposed ideologies involved, the fact that everyone is a participant, the interrelationship of war and peace, and the consequent importance of social habits and understandings. Chapter II summarizes the lessons of 1917-18 in this country and England, pointing out the failure to maintain educational standards in the face of new responsibilities and the serious effect that war had on the supply of teachers. Postwar trends in the United States are then taken up in Chapter III, as manifested in changes in the schools, the education of teachers, and the relation between the two.

Chapter IV shows the extent to which history seems to be repeating itself in the present emergency. A teacher shortage is again threatened. Mr. Evenden then discusses the difficulties relating to the supply of teachers, acceleration programs and other methods for meeting the demand, curricular and personnel problems, and the influence of public attitudes. Lessons from recent English experience are discussed in Chapter V, with special reference to the way in which the British have profited from the experience of twenty-five years ago and are preventing the recurrence of some of the worst aspects of the dislocation. Finally, in Chapter VI, Mr. Evenden discusses some educational "first things" and concludes with a list of specific recommendations addressed respectively to school systems, to colleges and universities, and to the public.

L
11
2
ac-
n-
is-
st-
of
to
ain
the
out-
onal

been
on
the
are
da-
ved,
tici-
and
ance
ngs.
as of
and,
tain
ve of
as ef-
y of
the
p in
nges
each-
two.
nt to
ating
y. A
ened.
e dif-
y of
and
de-
prob-
at-
nglish
apter
way
profited
y-five
re-
pects
Chap-
some
con-
ecom-
ly to
univ-

rnal